

CO₂ deposition over the multi-year ice of the western Weddell Sea

H. J. Zemmeling,^{1,2} B. Delille,³ J. L. Tison,⁴ E. J. Hintsa,⁵ L. Houghton,⁵
and J. W. H. Dacey⁵

Received 16 March 2006; revised 16 May 2006; accepted 1 June 2006; published 13 July 2006.

[1] Field measurements by eddy correlation (EC) indicate an average uptake of $0.6 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ by the ice-covered western Weddell Sea in December 2004. At the same time, snow that covers ice floes of the western Weddell Sea becomes undersaturated with CO₂ relative to the atmosphere during early summer. Gradients of CO₂ from the ice to the atmosphere do not support significant diffusive fluxes and are not strong enough to explain the observed CO₂ deposition. We hypothesize that the transport of air through the snow pack is controlled by turbulence and that undersaturation of CO₂ is caused by biological productivity at the ice-snow and snow-atmosphere interface. The total carbon uptake by the multi-year ice zone of the western Weddell Sea in December could have been as high as 6.6 Tg C yr^{-1} . **Citation:** Zemmeling, H. J., B. Delille, J. L. Tison, E. J. Hintsa, L. Houghton, and J. W. H. Dacey (2006), CO₂ deposition over the multi-year ice of the western Weddell Sea, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 33, L13606, doi:10.1029/2006GL026320.

[2] There is no doubt that the ocean plays a major role in regulating the concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂). Takahashi *et al.* [2002] and T. Takahashi (Ocean basin summations of sea-air flux computed using the 10 meter height winds, 2003, available at http://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/pi/CO2/carbondioxide/text/10m_wind.prn, hereinafter referred to as Takahashi, unpublished data, 2003) analyzed over 940,000 measurements of surface-water pCO₂ and estimated the annual net uptake of CO₂ by the global oceans to be $1.64 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$. The Southern Ocean forms a significant sink for atmospheric CO₂; Takahashi *et al.* [2002] and Takahashi (unpublished data, 2003) estimated an uptake of $0.35 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ south of 50°S for 1995, which is 21% of the global uptake. However, ice-covered oceanic zones are not taken into account in the current climatology. The role of ice-covered zones was ignored because it was assumed that sea ice precludes gas exchange [Tréguer and Pondaven, 2002]. However, recently, Semiletov *et al.* [2004] showed that invasion of atmospheric CO₂ could be significant over Arctic sea ice. In addition sea ice

formation could enhance the uptake of atmospheric CO₂ [Anderson *et al.*, 2004]. In this study we present data on CO₂ fluxes over the multi-year ice zone of the western Weddell Sea.

[3] The study was performed during the 2004 Ice Station Polarstern (ISPOL) cruise, a field experiment designed to improve understanding of physical and biological air-sea-ice interactions in the Weddell Sea through early summer (November–December). ISPOL involved a 37 day drift station on an ice floe (from 68°15'S, 54°45'W to 67°22'S, 55°25'W) in the western Weddell Sea, the largest perennial ice-covered zone in the Southern Ocean.

[4] The CO₂ flux was measured at a height of 2.75 m using the eddy correlation (EC) technique. EC is considered to be the most direct technique for measuring gas fluxes [Fairall *et al.*, 2000], since it utilizes the covariance of scalar concentrations (or mixing ratios) and vertical wind velocity. EC requires measurements at a sufficient rate (10–20 Hz) to adequately capture all turbulence frequencies contributing to the flux. The EC system (Applied Technologies, Inc.) used in this study was battery powered and included a SATI/3K three-axis sonic anemometer and an open-path infrared CO₂/H₂O analyzer (Li-7500, Li-COR, USA). The battery pack and computers of the EC system were placed in a shelter at 20 m distance from the meteorological tower. Data acquisition and processing was to a large extent similar to those of EC measurements conducted in previous experiments as part of slow response techniques to measure DMS fluxes from the oceans [Zemmeling *et al.*, 2004a, 2004b; Hintsa *et al.*, 2004]. During ISPOL, post-processing of the data included coordinate rotation followed by application of the Webb *et al.* [1980] corrections to determine the latent and sensible heat fluxes from the measured mean covariances of vertical wind speed with sonic temperature and with water vapor density. These were then used to compute a density-corrected CO₂ flux with an averaging period of 30 min. Fluxes are indicated according to the micrometeorological convention, i.e., negative when directed downward.

[5] Instrumental failures during snowfall occurred and data during those episodes were discarded from further analysis. The source area of the flux was selected to exclude influence of the ship and the shelter; that is, measurements were only accepted when the ship and shelter were located downwind from the EC tower. The ice floe in the presumed fetch area was relatively flat (with the exception of some pressure ridges), with an adequate fetch of at least 300 m before the presence of a 10 m wide lead (open water). The 50% source area (determined following Schmid [1994]) for EC measurements at 2.75 m was well within the boundaries of the floe.

[6] The accuracy of the EC system can be derived by comparison of different techniques and sensors that were

¹School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK.

²Now at Department of Biological Chemistry and Oceanography, Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Den Burg, The Netherlands.

³Unité d'Océanographie Chimique, MARE, University of Liège, Liège, Belgium.

⁴DSTE-Glaciologie, Faculté des Sciences, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium.

⁵Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Massachusetts, USA.

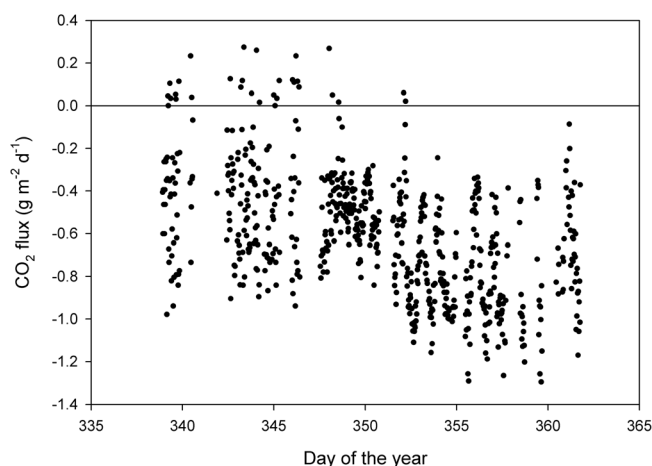


Figure 1. Turbulent CO₂ fluxes ($\text{g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) over the multi-year ice in the western Weddell Sea as measured by eddy correlation in December 2004.

used during ISPOL to measure latent heat (LH) and sensible heat (SH) fluxes respectively. LH fluxes derived from a bulk aerodynamic approach (using the temperature difference between snow and atmosphere) averaged 10 W m^{-2} (J. Launiainen, ISPOL meeting Tvärminnen, personal communication, 2006), while our EC measurements resulted in an average LH flux of 14.8 W m^{-2} , a difference of 50%. SH fluxes measured by EC by J. Launiainen averaged 5.9 W m^{-2} ; our measurements averaged 4.7 W m^{-2} , a difference of 20%. Although this comparison shows reasonable agreement between independent measurements, it remains difficult to make statements about absolute accuracies. An underlying problem is that the techniques have different source areas with different surface characteristics that influence the flux. We estimate that the uncertainty of the covariance measurements presented in this study is 10–30%, which is comparable to the error estimates of previous experiments conducted at sea [Edson *et al.*, 1998; Hintsa *et al.*, 2004] and slightly higher than the uncertainty of land-based covariance flux measurements, which is typically on the order of 10–15%.

[7] The sonic anemometer was serviced and calibrated by the manufacturer prior to the beginning of the experiment. Zero calibration of wind speed and span calibration of temperature to -30°C showed that the anemometer was stable in the field. The Li-COR CO₂/H₂O analyzers were serviced and calibrated by the manufacturer at the beginning of the experiment. In the field, zero calibration (by chemical removal of CO₂ and H₂O) was performed every week and showed no drift. Experience has shown that a change in span is unlikely when zero calibration does not drift. Span calibration in the shore laboratory at the end of the experiment showed that drift of the instruments over the interval of the experiment was negligible.

[8] CO₂ concentrations in the snow were determined daily near the base of a meteorological tower. Two liters of air from a series of inlets at different depths in the snow were sampled through thick-walled Teflon tubing into Vac-U-Chamber airtight boxes (SKC Inc.), into which Tedlar bags were placed for sample accumulation. Several Vac-U-Chamber boxes could be evacuated with a single pump, and

a three-way valve on each box allowed switching from purging the tubing to collecting air samples at 100 ml min^{-1} (for more details see Hintsa *et al.* [2004]). Subsequently, bags were brought back to the ship's laboratory and analyzed for CO₂ using a closed path Li-7000 in absolute mode. Toward the end of December, however, melting and refreezing changed snow conditions and it was decided to use a Li-6262 set up for direct measurements of CO₂ in the field by pumping air through the analyzer at 300 ml min^{-1} .

[9] Aerial photography and electromagnetic soundings around the selected floe (over a triangle of about 70 km along each side) revealed that the ice floe actually consisted of a mosaic of individual multi-year (probably second-year) ice floes welded together by areas of first-year ice, with frequent occurrences of deformation ridges at the boundaries. Snow thickness near the meteorological tower varied between 0.5 and 1 m, generally higher in the vicinity of ridges. A number of significant changes in the character of the pack ice between 29 November 2004 and 1 January 2005 were observed as described by Zemmelink *et al.* [2005].

[10] Briefly, during the first three weeks of fieldwork two types of snow were distinguished: snow that covered slush and snow that covered solid ice. Sudden changes in sea ice characteristics occurred toward the end of December, when melting of snow and surface flooding was observed and slush and melt ponds formed at the surface of the snow, in addition to an increase of slush between the snow and underlying ice. Refreezing of water in the snow resulted in the formation of granulated snow (containing small pieces of ice and open spaces) and of superimposed ice (refrozen snow melt as a layer of solid ice at some depth within the snow pack). Snow characteristics became very heterogeneous toward the end of December when the slush turned brown due to the abundance of diatoms.

[11] The discoloration of slush and melt ponds implies increasing primary production in and at the surface of the snow pack, which would lead to an uptake of CO₂ by the floe. Indeed, the daily flux, as measured by EC, increased from $-0.2 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in early December, to $-0.8 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ toward the end of December, averaging $-0.6 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Figure 1). Fluxes exhibited some variation, probably caused by surface heterogeneity, but also showed a diurnal cycle correlating with the heat flux (data not shown), with maxima around 15:00, especially apparent after year day 350. The observed carbon flux values are lower than fluxes measured by EC over fast ice of the North American-Siberian Arctic Ocean shelf zone [Semiletov *et al.*, 2004], ranging between -0.9 – $-1.7 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. However, those fluxes were measured over sea-ice melt ponds and open brine channels known to be highly productive [Thomas and Dieckmann, 2002].

[12] From a numerical model Arrigo *et al.* [1997] concluded that primary production in ice of the Weddell Sea could average $1.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ in December, increasing to $1.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ in January. This is in agreement with our flux measurements ranging from $1.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ (in early December) to $6.8 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ (toward the end of December) with an average of $5.1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$. Maximum growth of “sea ice algae” is reached in first-year ice and is near its peak in December when surface flooding provides nutrients at the ice-snow

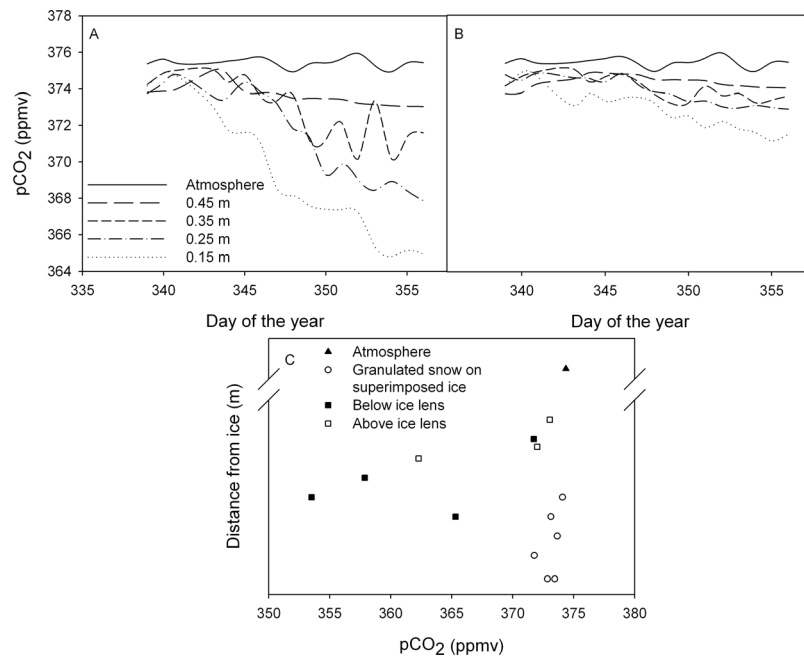


Figure 2. CO₂ concentrations (ppmv) in snow, as a function of distance from the ice surface, and in the atmosphere at 0.85 m from the ice. (a) Profiles over slush. (b) Profiles over solid ice. (c) CO₂ concentrations (ppmv) at three locations during the last week of December. Melting and freezing resulted in extremely heterogeneous snow characteristics, showing ice formation and inclination of snow layers.

interface and within the freeboard layer, near sea level [Arrigo *et al.*, 1997].

[13] Primary production could be hampered by slow replenishment of CO₂ through the snowpack, which tempers atmospheric turbulence. Albert and Shultz [2002] studied in situ transport of SF₆ in undisturbed snow in light (3 m s⁻¹) and moderately strong (9 m s⁻¹) wind conditions. Results indicated that transport in a hoar layer was diffusion-controlled at low wind speed, and more turbulence-controlled at the higher wind speed.

[14] Following Takagi *et al.* [2005], the diffusion flux (F_d) of CO₂ through the snow layer can be evaluated by Fick's law of diffusion $F_d = D_c \theta \lambda \Delta C / \Delta z$. The binary diffusion constant for CO₂ in air (D ; $0.138 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at standard temperature (T_0) and pressure (P_0)) was corrected for observed temperature (T) and pressure (P) to determine the diffusion coefficient (D_c) as, $D_c = D (P_0/P)(T/T_0)^{1.81}$. A fixed value of the air-filled porosity (θ) of $0.60 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (averaged over ISPOL (C. Haas, personal communication, 2006)) was used to calculate the tortuosity factor λ ($\lambda = (1 - (1 - \theta)^{2/3})/\theta$). Using a concentration gradient ($\Delta C / \Delta z$) of CO₂ between the ice and atmosphere of $5.24 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ g}_{\text{CO}_2} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ snow} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (maximum gradient in the snow layer observed during ISPOL), the diffusive flux during ISPOL is about $37.8 \text{ mg CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, which is in the same range of values found for diffusive transport through a snowpack as measured in a forest [Takagi *et al.*, 2005]. However, it is difficult to interpret our measured gradients and the derived diffusion controlled flux because sampling 2 L of air implies that the sample is pulled from a sphere with a radius of at least 8 cm. It is likely that the air is transported over some distance, depending on the resistance in the snow.

[15] The diffusive flux as found in Takagi *et al.*'s [2005] study and in this study is significantly lower than the flux

measured by EC. Takagi *et al.* found that CO₂ concentrations in a snow pack fluctuated significantly as wind speeds increased from near zero to 2 m s^{-1} , which shows that wind-pumping strongly affects transport of CO₂ in a snowpack. Wind speeds during ISPOL varied between 1 and 14 m s^{-1} , averaging 5.3 m s^{-1} . It is therefore possible that the observed concentration gradients in the snowpack remained relatively small as a result of airflow within the snowpack, which makes turbulence the dominant transport factor and lowers the estimated influx by Fick's law. However, our study, during which measurements of CO₂ profiles in the snowpack were not made continuously, does not allow a detailed analysis of the dependence between CO₂ concentrations and wind speed as performed in the study of Takagi *et al.* [2005].

[16] Depletion of CO₂ in snow-encapsulated air is especially apparent above the brown colored slush (Figures 2a and 2b). Increasing productivity at this interface results in a further decrease of pCO₂ throughout the snow layer over the course of December. In addition, refreezing of meltwater and the formation of ice lenses toward the end of December will hamper turbulence in the snowpack and transport of CO₂. Figure 2c shows the strong undersaturation of CO₂ below an ice lens that impedes exchange with the atmosphere, while CO₂ utilization still occurs. Above another ice lens, uptake of CO₂ also occurs, but it is partially compensated by transfer from the atmosphere. No gradients of CO₂ were observed in coarse-grained granular snow, where turbulent transport of air may not be restricted by the open structure.

[17] We hypothesize that the measured fluxes during ISPOL are due to biological activity in slush, formed at the ice-snow interface, and biological activity at the snow-atmosphere interface, where flooding provides nutrients [Thomas and Papadimitriou, 2003]. Unfortunately, other

than observations of increasing brown discoloration at the snow surface and in brash ice and a diurnal cycle in the CO₂ flux, no data on primary production were collected to support this hypothesis.

[18] Assuming that the multi-year ice zone in the western Weddell Sea extends to 1.3×10^6 km² [Gloersen et al., 1992] and an average carbon dioxide flux of -0.6 g CO₂ m⁻² d⁻¹ throughout December; the total carbon uptake in December alone in the multi-year ice zone could be as high as 6.6 Tg C y⁻¹. However, one cannot assume that this is going to remain below the ice: part of this carbon might well return to the inorganic carbon pool and atmosphere later in the year. Hoppema et al. [1999] calculated, from estimations of entrainment (introducing 34 Tg C y⁻¹ into the 100 m surface layer) and new production (removing 42 Tg C y⁻¹), that the total uptake of atmospheric carbon by the Weddell Sea amounted to 8 Tg C y⁻¹. However, Hoppema et al. [1999] discuss that by extrapolating their results from the offshore area to the entire Weddell Sea they probably underestimate the effect of the biological pump. In addition, the budgets presented by Hoppema et al. [1999] are annual estimates; most of the atmospheric exchange will occur in the biologically productive months: December through February. Our calculated carbon uptake is in agreement with the values derived by Hoppema et al. [1999].

[19] The observed fluxes are significant beyond the local scale, as they amount to $\sim 1.8\%$ of the total uptake south of 50° S as estimated by Takahashi et al. [2002] and Takahashi (unpublished data, 2003). Although this is a very crude estimate based on the assumption that the observed ice characteristics are representative of the entire perennial ice zone of the western Weddell Sea (and that biological activity in the flooded snow pack is a common feature), it suggests that this region plays an important role in the Southern Ocean CO₂ budget.

[20] **Acknowledgments.** This work was financially supported by the Marie Curie Training Site Fellowship (contract HPMF-CT-2002-01865) and by NERC (award ref. NER/B/S/2003/00844). This research was also supported in part by Belgian Science Policy (contract EV/12/7E, SD/CA/03A -Belcanto) and Belgian French Community (ARC-contract 02/07-287 - Sibclim), and by the U.S. National Science Foundation (OCE-0327601). This is the MARE contribution 084. We would like to thank WHOI Ocean Life Institute. The authors would like to express their deepest thanks and appreciation to the crew of the R.V. Polarstern for all their efforts in helping us throughout ANT XXII/2. Thanks also the chief scientist M Spindler and to the AWI for making the cruise possible.

References

- Albert, M. R., and E. F. Shultz (2002), Snow and firn properties and air–snow transport processes at Summit, Greenland, *Atmos. Environ.*, **36**, 2789–2797.
- Anderson, L. G., E. Falck, E. P. Jones, S. Jutterström, and J. H. Swift (2004), Enhanced uptake of atmospheric CO₂ during freezing of seawater: A field study in Storfjorden, Svalbard, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **109**, C06004, doi:10.1029/2003JC002120.
- Arrigo, K. R., D. L. Worthen, M. P. Lizotte, P. Dixon, and G. Dieckmann (1997), Primary production in Antarctic sea ice, *Science*, **276**, 394–397.
- Edson, J. B., A. A. Hinton, K. E. Prada, J. E. Hare, and C. W. Fairall (1998), Direct covariance flux estimates from mobile platforms at sea, *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, **15**, 547–562.
- Fairall, C. W., J. E. Hare, J. B. Edson, and W. R. McGillis (2000), Parameterization and micrometeorological measurement of air-sea gas transfer, *Boundary Layer Meteorol.*, **96**, 63–105.
- Gloersen, P., W. J. Campbell, D. J. Cavalieri, J. C. Comiso, C. L. Parkinson, and H. J. Zwally (1992), *Arctic and Antarctic Sea Ice, 1978–1987: Satellite Passive-Microwave Observations and Analysis*, NASA SP-511, 290 pp.
- Hints, E. J., J. W. H. Dacey, W. R. McGillis, J. B. Edson, C. J. Zappa, and H. J. Zemmeling (2004), Sea-to-air fluxes from measurements of the atmospheric gradient of dimethylsulfide and comparison with simultaneous relaxed eddy accumulation measurements, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **109**, C01026, doi:10.1029/2002JC001617.
- Hoppema, M., E. Fahrbach, M. Stoll, and H. de Baar (1999), Annual uptake of atmospheric CO₂ by the Weddell Sea derived from a surface layer balance, including estimations of entrainment and new production, *J. Mar. Syst.*, **18**, 219–234.
- Schmid, H. P. (1994), Source areas for scalars and scalar fluxes, *Boundary Layer Meteorol.*, **67**, 293–318.
- Semiletov, I., A. Makshtas, S.-I. Akasofu, and E. L. Andreas (2004), Atmospheric CO₂ balance: The role of Arctic sea ice, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **31**, L05121, doi:10.1029/2003GL017996.
- Takagi, K., M. Nomura, D. Ashiya, H. Takahashi, K. Sasa, Y. Fujinuma, H. Shibata, Y. Akibayashi, and T. Koike (2005), Dynamic carbon dioxide exchange through snowpack by wind-driven mass transfer in a conifer-broadleaf mixed forest in northernmost Japan, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, **19**, GB2012, doi:10.1029/2004GB002272.
- Takahashi, T., et al. (2002), Global sea-air CO₂ flux based on climatological surface ocean pCO₂, and seasonal biological and temperature effects, *Deep Sea Res., Part II*, **49**, 1601–1622.
- Thomas, D. N., and G. S. Dieckmann (2002), Antarctic sea ice a habitat for extremophiles, *Science*, **295**, 641–644.
- Thomas, D. N., and S. Papadimitriou (2003), Biogeochemistry of sea ice, in *Sea Ice: An Introduction to Its Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Geology*, edited by D. N. Thomas and G. S. Dieckmann, pp. 267–302, Blackwell Sci., Malden, Mass.
- Tréguer, P., and P. Pondaven (2002), Climatic changes and the carbon cycle in the Southern Ocean: A step forward, *Deep Sea Res., Part II*, **49**, 1597–1600.
- Webb, E. K., G. I. Pearman, and R. Leuning (1980), Corrections of flux measurements for density effects due to heat and water vapour transfer, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, **106**, 85–100.
- Zemmeling, H. J., W. W. C. Gieskes, W. Klaassen, W. J. Beukema, H. W. de Groot, H. J. W. de Baar, E. J. Hints, W. R. McGillis, and J. W. H. Dacey (2004a), Relaxed eddy accumulation measurements of the sea-to-air transfer of dimethylsulfide over the northeastern Pacific, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **109**, C01025, doi:10.1029/2002JC001616.
- Zemmeling, H. J., J. W. H. Dacey, E. J. Hints, W. R. McGillis, W. W. C. Gieskes, W. Klaassen, H. W. de Groot, and H. J. W. de Baar (2004b), Fluxes and gas transfer rates of the biogenic trace gas DMS derived from atmospheric gradients, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **109**, C08S10, doi:10.1029/2003JC001795.
- Zemmeling, H., L. Houghton, J. Dacey, A. Worby, and P. Liss (2005), Emission of dimethylsulfide from Weddell Sea leads, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **32**, L23610, doi:10.1029/2005GL024242.

J. W. H. Dacey, E. J. Hints, and L. Houghton, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA 02543, USA.

B. Delille, Unité d'Océanographie Chimique, MARE, University of Liège, B-4000 Liège, Belgium.

J. L. Tison, DSTE-Glaciologie, Faculté des Sciences, Université Libre de Bruxelles, B-1050 Brussels, Belgium.

H. J. Zemmeling, Department of Biological Chemistry and Oceanography, Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, P. O. Box 59, 1790 AB Den Burg, The Netherlands. (zemmeling@nioz.nl)